

THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL

PUBLISHED BY THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF THE
MIDDLE WEST AND SOUTH, WITH THE CO-OPERATION
OF THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF NEW ENGLAND
AND THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF THE PACIFIC STATES

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VOLUME XVIII
1922-1923

THE TORCH PRESS
Cedar Rapids, Iowa



Published
October, November, December, 1922
January, February, March, April, May, June, 1923

PRINTED AND BOUND BY
THE TORCH PRESS
CEDAR RAPIDS
IOWA

OCT 9 1922

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THE TORCH PRESS
CEDAR RAPIDS IOWA

THE CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS, LONDON
THE MARUZEN-KABUSHIK-KAISHA, TOKYO, OSAKA, KYOTO
FUKUOKA, SENDAI
THE MISSION BOOK COMPANY, SHANGHAI

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Published by the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, with the cooperation of the
Classical Association of New England and the Classical Association of the Pacific States

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The Classical Journal is published monthly except in July, August, and September by The Torch Press, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. The subscription price is \$2.50 per year; the price of single copies is 30 cents. Orders for service of less than a half-year will be charged at the single-copy rate. [Postage is prepaid by the publishers on all orders from the United States, Mexico, Cuba, Porto Rico, Panama Canal Zone, Republic of Panama, Bolivia, Columbia, Honduras, Nicaragua, Peru, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Samoa Islands, Shanghai. Postage is charged extra as follows: For Canada, 15 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$2.65); on single copies 2 cents (total 32 cents). For all other countries in the Postal Union, 24 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$2.74); on single copies 3 cents (total 33 cents).

Claims for Missing Numbers should be made within the month following the regular month of publication. The publishers expect to supply numbers free only when losses have been sustained in transit and when the reserve stock will permit.

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Twenty-five Reprints, if ordered in advance of publication, will be supplied to authors of major articles free.

Entered as second-class matter at the Post-office at Menasha, Wisconsin, on October 25, 1921. Acceptance for mailing at the special rate of Postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized on August 23, 1918, and paragraphs 7 and 8 Section 463, P. L. and R. Application pending for removal of publication office from Menasha, Wis., to Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

Gen.
Wahr

THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL

VOLUME XVIII

OCTOBER, 1922

No. 1

Editorial

THE AMERICAN CLASSICAL LEAGUE AFTER FIVE YEARS 1917-1922

In June, 1917, just after the United States entered the World War, the first National Classical Conference was held at Princeton. In July, 1918, at the crisis of the war, the National Classical Conference was held in Pittsburgh. In July, 1919, the American Classical League was organized in Milwaukee. Then came its first annual meeting in Cincinnati in June, 1920, followed by the second annual meeting in Philadelphia in July, 1921, when Vice-President Coolidge delivered his famous address and when the Classical Investigation was launched with the financial help of the General Education Board. Last of all was the annual meeting held in Boston in July, at the close of a year of vigorous activities and most encouraging progress. The papers read at the Boston meeting, including the special statement of Hon. Charles Evans Hughes, Secretary of State, read at the general session of the National Education Association on the Fourth of July, are printed elsewhere in this issue. Read them all. They are well worth it. Professor Oldfather gave a clear account of the present critical situation of the invaluable *Thesaurus*, and Professor Kent made plain the real meaning of Latin as the auxiliary international language. Then followed three papers on Classics in the Secondary Schools. Professor Inglis of Harvard read a friendly and searching critique of our methods of teaching and how to improve them. Commissioner Payson Smith of Massachusetts

and State Superintendent Finegan of Pennsylvania came out flat-footed for maintaining and strengthening the Classics in the schools.

Dean West's annual report as President of the American Classical League was full of encouraging facts. The Classical Investigation has already made great progress through the indefatigable labors of the three special investigators, W. L. Carr, Mason D. Gray, and W. V. McDuffee. It was reported that two thousand classical teachers are giving time and labor to it voluntarily and without any compensation. But the full figures are better yet, for about three thousand classical teachers and nearly one thousand teachers of English, French, and history is the true total. It is a free-will offering unmatched in the history of American education. Moreover the impartiality and thoroughness of the whole investigation are winning the approval of educators generally. We are criticizing and searching our methods in order to improve them. No other subject has ever been so severely studied by its own advocates as our classical teaching is now being studied. It is producing a feeling of confidence. It is raising the insistent question as to why the same should not be done for all subjects. Then think of the area of our experimentation! It extends to every state in the Union. It includes nearly 110,000 pupils in 716 secondary schools. In another year this part of our work will be extended.

There are other encouraging omens. The Carnegie Corporation has appropriated \$30,000 for the general work of the American Classical League. It is an immense help at this juncture. Our membership has increased heavily during the year and the sale of our publications has also increased. Influential friends have spoken out in behalf of our cause. So far as returns are available, the enrollment of pupils, while showing only slight gains in Greek, shows a strong advance in Latin.

The movement to improve our teaching is gaining force and bids fair to put our whole secondary school work in Classics on a stronger basis soon. It has been a good year. Next year promises to be still better.

FANEUIL HALL AND THE PARTHENON

[The generous reception given by Boston and the Boston press to the Classics and the American Classical League, meeting as a section of the National Education Association, is well expressed by the following editorial appearing in the *Boston Evening Transcript* of June 27.—EDITOR.]

Though the farthest range of imagination can discover no element of physical likeness between "the cradle of American liberty" and the ancient Greek State's great temple upon the Acropolis, still an event of next week in Boston will bring to significant unison certain traditions which the two buildings embody. In the afternoon of next Monday — the day before the Fourth — the American Classical League will hold its annual meeting in Faneuil Hall. Here classical scholars from all regions of the United States, affiliated through this organization with the National Education Association which brings its great convention to Boston next week, will assemble to take fresh counsel for the success of classical education throughout America.

Were the American Classical League concerned merely with obstinate lip-service to Greek and Latin as studies indispensable in themselves, scant enthusiasm might be felt for its programme. The purpose and plan of the American Classical League is, in truth, very much broader. "We are not especially concerned either with the classics or mathematics as isolated studies," its president, Dean Andrew F. West of Princeton, writes, "but with maintaining, improving, and strengthening all good general education which rests on the idea of training the minds and habits of our American boys and girls by studies which strongly exercise their intelligence and invigorate their characters. Thus, from among our people may the best trained leaders be raised up for our people.

"Experience shows that thus far an extraordinary proportion of the best trained minds in our schools and colleges are those who have had this classical and mathematical training. We want this invaluable influence to continue and increase for the stabilizing and invigorating of our education and for its invaluable benefit to our land. We are trying to revive in power the standards of thought and duty which made the American character of the

virile and patriotic type. We want this chance available for every capable boy and girl who can take it. We are the friends of all studies which really train and inform the mind. They are all endangered now, both by the sordid materialistic view of life and duty and the morally enfeebling sentimental view."

There is a programme worth fighting for! Not the coddling of our school-children, but the maintenance of studies which do in truth "strongly exercise their intelligence and invigorate their characters." Those were the studies which built the Parthenon, ennobled Athenian culture, and made the ancient Republic of Athens forever great. So were they also the studies of our American forefathers who brought independence and the democracy of the United States to its birth in Faneuil Hall. Is it surprising that the Secretary of State, Mr. Hughes, finds it worth while to send a special message of endorsement to the American Classical League, to be read at the general meeting which will be held in connection with the National Education Association's session on the Fourth of July? Bostonians may well anticipate his summons by hearty support of the meeting next Monday which joins the tradition of the Parthenon to the tradition of Faneuil Hall.

AIMS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION¹

By the HONORABLE CHARLES EVANS HUGHES
Secretary of State

It is idle for those who are distressed by some of the tendencies of our time to indulge the notion that there will be a diminution of popular control or increase of respect for mere tradition or authority. The will of the people will be expressed and slight hindrances will be interposed to the satisfaction of their desires. As the restraints we believe to be important to our security and progress must be self-imposed, there is no reason why we should entertain the delusion that democracy will confer blessings except in so far as it represents the rule of an intelligent and cultured people.

We cannot fail to be gratified by the evidence on every hand of an increased demand for educational opportunity, and it is most encouraging to observe the extraordinary efforts that are being made, especially in the field of higher education, to provide new facilities. Public funds are available to an unprecedented extent, while the outpourings of private benevolence have gone beyond anything that we have hitherto deemed to be possible. But it is also apparent that there is much confusion with respect to standards and aims and that there will be little gain in considering the mechanism of education until we have re-examined the more fundamental needs.

It is not likely that there will be lack of opportunity for vocational education,—for the sort of training which will fit men and women to earn a living. The exigencies of our complex life are too apparent and the rewards too obvious to admit of neglect; and we shall have whatever vocational or technical schools are required. But democracy cannot live on bread alone. It is not

¹ Read at the General Meeting of the National Education Association, Boston, July 4, 1922.

enough that one shall be able to earn a living, or a good living. This is the foundation but not the structure. What is needed is to have life more abundantly.

From the standpoint of the individual the exclusively materialistic view is inadmissible, for the individual life should be enriched with the ampler resources of a wider culture. What is most important, however, in view of our social and civic needs, is that the door of hope should be kept open by maintaining the opportunities and standards of general education,—thus giving to those who start amid the direst necessities and with the most slender advantages, the chance to rise. This is of especial importance to our working people, who are not to be viewed as mere economic units but as our co-laborers in the great enterprise of human progress. The American ideal—and it must be maintained if we are to mitigate disappointment and unrest—is the ideal of equal educational opportunity, not merely for the purpose of enabling one to know how to earn a living, and to fit into an economic status more or less fixed, but of giving play to talent and aspiration and to development of mental and spiritual powers.

It is impossible to provide a system of general education and ignore the need of discipline. The sentimentalists are just as dangerous as the materialists. No one will dispute the importance of making study interesting, of recognizing the individual bent or special gifts. But the primary lesson for the citizens of democracy is self-control, and this is achieved only through self-discipline. As I look back upon my own experience, I find that the best lessons of life were the hardest. Even along the line of special aptitude it is the severe mental exercise, the overcoming of real obstacles, that counts. My mother's insistence on the daily exercises in mental arithmetic has been worth more to me than all the delightful dallies with intellectual pleasures I have ever had. Life is not a pastime and democracy is not a holiday excursion. It needs men trained to think, whose mental muscles are hard with toil, who know how to analyze and discriminate, who stand on the firm foundation of conviction which is made

possible only by training in the processes of reason. The sentimentalists must not be allowed to ruin us by dissipating the energy that should be harnessed for our varied needs.

When we consider the true object of education, to give the training which will enable one to make the most — that is the best — of oneself, we must realize that the foundation should be laid in a few studies of the highest value in self-discipline, and that there should be supplied every incentive to attain that mental and spiritual culture which connotes, not merely knowledge and skill, but character. This means self-denial, hard work, the inspiration of teachers with vision, and an appreciation of the privileges and obligations of citizenship in democracy.

In the elementary schools, it means that sort of training which insists, at whatever cost, on the mastery by the student of the subject before him, on accuracy — the lack of which, I regret to say, is now conspicuous in students of all grades — the correct use of our language, and the acquisition of that modicum of information which everyone should possess.

In the secondary schools (our high schools and academies) it means that we should stop scattering. There is at present a bewildering and unsuccessful attempt at comprehensiveness. It fails of its purpose in giving neither adequate information nor discipline. It asks too much of the student, and too little. I believe that we need to have a few fundamental, substantial studies which are thoroughly mastered. I am one of those who believe in the classical and mathematical training, and I do not think that we have found any satisfactory substitute for it. But the important point is the insistence upon concentration and thoroughness. The function of the secondary school is not to teach everything but really to teach something, to lay the basis for the subsequent, and more definitely specialized, intellectual endeavor.

I think, also, that we have done too much to encourage intellectual vagrancy in college. Of course there should be opportunity to select courses having in view definite scholastic aims, but we have gone so far that a "college education," outside of

technical schools, may mean little or nothing. It is a time for reconstruction and for the establishment of definite requirements by which there will be secured better mental discipline, more accurate information, and appropriate attention to the things of deepest value which make for the enrichment of the whole life of the student.

We have given too scant attention to the demands of training for citizenship. This implies adequate knowledge of our institutions, of their development and actual working. It means more than this in a world of new intimacies and complexities. It means adequate knowledge of other peoples, and for this purpose there is nothing to take the place of the humanities, of the study of literature and history. When I speak of the study of history, I do not mean a superficial review, but the earnest endeavor to understand the life of peoples, their problems and aspirations. And at this time it is not simply or chiefly the history of a distant past that it is most important to know; it is recent history, with sufficient acquaintance with the past to understand the extraordinary happenings and developments which have taken place in our own time, so that through a just and clear discernment our young men and women may properly relate themselves to the duties and opportunities of their generation.

We must not forget the many schools of experience, in one or more of which every American must take his course, but what we have regarded as the American character, that which we delight to praise as the dominant American opinion because of its clear, practical, and intelligent view of affairs, has resulted from the inter-action of the influences of the colleges and universities on the one hand and of these schools of experience on the other. We cannot afford to do without either. And the most pressing need of our day is attention to the organization of American education.

THE CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS IN TEACHING THE CLASSICS ¹

By ALEXANDER INGLIS
Professor of Education in
Harvard University

Every year more than half a million pupils are engaged in the study of Latin in the secondary schools of the United States. Each September more than a quarter of a million pupils are introduced to classical study. More secondary school pupils are engaged in the study of the classical languages than are engaged in the study of all modern foreign languages or are engaged in the study of any other secondary school subject except algebra, English, and history. These are facts which illustrate the responsibility resting on more than ten thousand teachers of the Classics in the secondary schools of the United States. They demand careful consideration of the conditions which determine the success or the non-success of education through the study of the classical languages and their literature. It is no unimportant task to organize properly instruction which vitally affects the education of more than half a million pupils each year.

Before entering on any discussion of the conditions of success in teaching the Classics it is well worth while to correct a common misconception of the position occupied by classical studies in the secondary school. It is the general opinion that the study of the Classics has noticeably declined within the past two decades. This is far from being the case. Greek, of course, has declined until a very small number of pupils is engaged in its pursuit, though it must be remembered that a relatively small number of secondary school pupils ever engaged in its study. On the other hand in gross numbers more pupils are receiving

¹ Read at the Third Annual Meeting of the American Classical League, Boston, July 3, 1922.

some instruction in Latin than ever before and in all probability at the present time a larger proportion of our total population is being brought into some contact with the Classics than at any former time. This is a fact not commonly recognized by those whose attention has been focused on the decreasing proportion of secondary school pupils engaged in classical studies. Yet it is a fact of fundamental significance not only for the influence of classical culture but also for the pedagogy of classical instruction.

Within the past quarter of a century a profoundly significant change has been taking place in American education, and particularly in secondary education. The number of pupils enrolled in the secondary schools has increased from less than half a million to more than a million and three-quarters — an increase out of all proportion to the increase in the total population. The private school, which formerly enrolled about one-third of all secondary school pupils, has gradually given undoubted lead to the public secondary school, which now enrolls nine-tenths of all secondary school pupils. The number of secondary schools has increased from less than five thousand to more than thirteen thousand. The older conception of secondary education as an educational luxury reserved for the few has been replaced by a conception of secondary education as a necessary part of the education of all citizens. The clientele of the public secondary school has changed from a relatively select group of pupils destined for a college education to a group thoroughly representative of all classes and stations. Finally our philosophy of secondary education has changed from a theory of selection for leadership to a theory which postulates that educational opportunities should be provided for each citizen according to his capacities and needs.

This evolution of our secondary school is very significant for the teacher of the Classics. In the first place it means opportunity for widening the sphere of classical influence, since a far greater proportion of the American people has been brought within reach of the secondary school. In the second place it means that instruction in the Classics must be adjusted to fundamental changes which have taken place in the character of the secondary school

population. Two or three decades ago the secondary school was almost exclusively an academic institution dominated by classical ideals and attended by those who looked forward to higher education or desired the sort of an education which was represented by preparation for college. On the whole the pupils attending the secondary school were of somewhat superior intelligence and for the most part came from homes where academic ideals prevailed. It was a relatively homogeneous group actuated by common interests and with relatively common needs. Now the secondary school enrolls pupils with widely varying capacities, interests, and needs, coming from homes which represent all conditions of life and all degrees of culture, and looking forward to widely varying destinies in life. Formerly a relatively uniform curriculum and relatively uniform methods of instruction were possible. No single and uniform curriculum, no uniform and stereotyped methods of instruction can properly meet the needs of the modern secondary school.

The pedagogy of classical instruction possesses all the advantages and all the disadvantages of a traditional institution. Its long history has permitted the development of a highly standardized and well developed methodology. It is a great advantage in that it permits effective instruction under the conditions and for those pupils for whom it was originally developed. It is a possible disadvantage in that it tends to resist modification and to retain a rigidly organized methodology not well suited to conditions different from those which it was originally developed to meet.

The methodology of classical instruction was developed and perfected to meet the capacities of relatively superior pupils whose needs were dominated by college admission requirements. Until recent times secondary education was dominated by the needs of pupils preparing for college and for the higher professions. That is no longer the case, and methodology designed to meet former needs is no longer adequate for all groups of pupils in the modern secondary school. For the most part the pedagogy of classical instruction remains much as it was when organized with primary

and almost exclusive reference to the capacities and needs of college preparatory pupils. If it is to meet the capacities, interests, and needs of other children, it must recognize the fact that their varying capacities, interests, and needs require methods of instruction adapted thereto.

All this introduces the first condition of success in teaching the Classics, or in teaching any other subject — that instruction be adapted to the capacities and needs of the pupils concerned in any case. In the modern secondary school we must recognize that we are dealing with pupils of widely differing capacities and needs. In such circumstances no highly standardized and stereotyped methodology or uniform character can be appropriate or effective. Classical instruction, as every other form of instruction, must be adapted to the varying capacities and needs of the various groups of pupils concerned. Otherwise there is no warrant or hope that it can be successful. Rather it must be foredoomed to partial or complete failure.

Instruction in the classical languages as at present organized requires for effective learning an intelligence somewhat above the average. In technical language it requires an intelligence quotient probably not less than 105, or five points above average general intelligence. This means that at least one-third, and probably nearer one-half, of all high school pupils are by nature handicapped for the study of Latin or Greek as it is taught at present in the great majority of secondary schools throughout the country. It is an indubitable fact that a large proportion of pupils in our secondary schools are by nature incapable of learning effectively the classical languages as their instruction is organized at the present time. This is only another way of saying that methods of classical instruction as at present commonly organized practically exclude a very large proportion of secondary school pupils from successful study of the Classics.

It is not on record that either the Latin language or the Greek language was reserved for those Romans or those Greeks who were endowed with intelligence above the average. Hence we may assume that it is perfectly possible for any pupil in the sec-

ondary school to learn Latin or Greek. If any pupil does not succeed in the study of either of those languages, the fault must lie either in his unwillingness to make the necessary effort or in the character of the instruction which is afforded. The fact is that teachers of the Classics have seldom made any real effort to adapt their instruction to the capacities of the pupils concerned, but have employed for pupils of all types a uniform and stereotyped method determined in large part by the text-books employed. In general they have assumed that there is a fixed and inflexible *quantum, quale, and quomodo* of instruction in Latin or Greek which constitutes a sort of intellectual and educational hurdle. If the pupil can overleap it, well and good; if not, so much the worse for him. This supremacy of the subject must give way to the supremacy of the pupil, if instruction is to be successful. Not some fixed and inflexible organization of content and method, but the pupil is the primary factor determining the character of instruction. As long as the classical teacher persists in maintaining a uniform and inflexible organization of his instruction, he cannot complain that principals and others advise all but superior pupils to avoid the study of Latin and Greek. Nor can he complain when many of his pupils fail in a study which the teacher himself has geared up to fixed standards which practically preclude successful study for a large proportion of secondary school pupils.

Practically what does this mean? It means that the first task of the classical teacher is to study the capacities, interests, and needs of each class and, as far as possible, of each pupil in each class. On the basis of the knowledge thus disclosed he must organize content and method to meet the capacities and needs of the pupils concerned. Unless his instruction is organized on this basis, he must expect that much of his teaching will be of little avail and that no small part of his class will face failure. In particular it means that for those groups of pupils who have but recently found their way into the secondary school new methods of classical instruction must be developed and that classical instruction must vary somewhat according to the character

of the pupils concerned. The development of the modern comprehensive high school, with its numerous curricula and varying pupil groups, has created new problems for classical instruction. They must be solved by the classical teacher, if he is to be successful in meeting the requirements of new conditions.

The second major condition of success in teaching the Classics is that instruction must conform to the requirements of the laws of learning. This topic is altogether too large to permit any complete analysis here, but a few illustrations will serve to make clear the importance of this factor.

It has long been recognized that the development of motivating interests is a fundamental requirement for successful learning. This is particularly true in the case of a study which is so remote from the pupil's experience that he can have no real understanding of its character or purpose and so far removed from directly utilitarian ends that its values must be taken on faith, at least in the beginning. Such is the case with the study of the Classics, and for that reason successful teaching of the Classics is peculiarly dependent on attention to the development of motivating interests.

Two or three decades ago the general character of the secondary school population, the dominance of the college admission purpose and the common prescription of classical study tended to maintain some sort of motivating interest for the study of the classical languages. Today classical study is not a requirement for admission to most higher institutions of learning, the classical languages are not prescribed studies in most secondary schools, and competition with the numerous subjects of a greatly extended program in the secondary school have made the development of motivating interests a problem of far greater importance for the classical teacher.

One of the most significant educational developments of recent years is the practical recognition of the fact that successful learning is determined primarily by the psychology of the learner rather than by the logical relations of subject matter as viewed by the expert acquainted with the subject in its complete form.

Always, to be sure, the subject imposes certain restrictions on the organization of its content and on the methods of its instruction. Within certain limits, however, any subject may be manipulated almost at will by the teacher, and in the case of Latin or Greek it is perfectly possible to organize instruction so that it may proceed with due regard to the psychology of learning.

This topic is far too involved to permit any intensive discussion here. It may be noted, however, that at present classical instruction (though no more so than secondary school instruction in general) is very, very far from proceeding in accordance with the psychology of the learner. The laws of original learning and the laws of retention are violated constantly. The very textbooks employed, for the most part, violate every known canon of the psychology of learning. There is a vast field here for improvement in classical instruction, as well as in every other field of secondary school instruction.

A final example of the necessity of adapting instruction in the Classics to the laws of learning may be found in the tendency to mass the major part of such formal elements as morphology, syntax, and vocabulary in the first year of instruction. If there is one principle which stands out pre-eminently in the psychology of learning, it is that sufficient exercise must be provided to fix the principle or skill learned. The common practice of providing a maximum of morphology, syntax, and vocabulary in the beginning year of classical study, while providing the most meagre amount of practice in reading and writing the languages involved, is a fundamental defect in classical instruction. Happily the needed reform is already well under way and it is to be hoped that the time will soon come when the classical teacher will cease to present the entire Latin or Greek language in the first year of its study.

The third major condition of success in teaching the Classics is that instruction be so organized as to make its maximum contribution to the attainment of those aims and values for which the classical languages and literatures are studied. The final test of all instruction is whether or not it results in the development

of those knowledges, skills, powers, interests, and ideals which it is designed to develop.

The question here is not whether the educational values to be obtained through classical study justify its prominent position in the secondary school program. Whether or not the proponents or the opponents of the Classics are right in their contentions, the fact remains that over half a million secondary school pupils are actually engaged in their study. The vital question thus becomes whether or not teachers of Latin and Greek have so organized their instruction as to develop properly those values commonly claimed for classical study.

Apart from the direct use values of the Latin and Greek languages (which certainly cannot be important values for any large proportion of the great number engaged in the study of those languages) important values claimed for classical study are those which have to do with the development of general linguistic ability and with the development of social-cultural understanding and interest. If we assume that these are legitimate values to be sought in the study of the classical languages and their literatures, we may well inquire whether or not instruction is well adapted to their development.

Beyond doubt one of the most important values to be sought in the study of Latin and Greek is the development of general linguistic ability, manifested for the most part in an improved understanding and use of the English language, but by no means limited to mere matters of etymology and derivation. Are methods of classical instruction well adapted to the development of this important value? In many cases they undoubtedly are. But in many more cases it must be recognized that methods of instruction in the Classics not only are not well adapted to this end, but they are well adapted to defeat one of the most important aims claimed by the very teachers responsible. It is not too much to say that many teachers of Latin and Greek are doing damage rather than good by their neglect of correct English in the translation of the Latin and Greek and by permitting the use of loose, vague, inexact, even incorrect English. As long as the improve-

ment of language use is considered one of the important outcomes of the study of classical languages, so long must the classical teacher insist on the correct, precise, and accurate use of English to interpret the thought embodied in the foreign language. The pupil can improve neither his use of the foreign language nor his use of English as long as he is permitted to use either language in an incorrect and slipshod fashion. It must be admitted that success in teaching the Classics is conditioned by improvement over present practice in many, many schools.

A second important outcome of classical instruction should be an understanding of the life, customs, institutions, literature, and thought of the Romans and Greeks, together with some appreciation of the effect of their institutions and literature on modern civilization. Is instruction in the classical languages and their literature so organized as to develop this important value? Again, in many cases, undoubtedly yes. In many other cases, however, we must recognize that a deadening formalism of instruction has robbed pupils of those stimulating contacts with classical life and literature. To many pupils the pages of Caesar are but so many lines of vocabulary and syntax instead of a thrilling account of the conquest of Western Europe and the beginnings of civilization there. To them the orations of Cicero are but linguistic exercises instead of masterpieces of literature or pictures of Roman life and government. To them the Aeneid or the Iliad are but tasks to be performed rather than the greatest epics ever written. To them the study of Latin and Greek literature is but a form of linguistic gymnastics, empty of content and devoid of interest. Instruction which permits this state of affairs cannot mean success in teaching the Classics, however successful it may be in teaching the anatomy of the classical languages.

In addition to the rather definite values mentioned, more general disciplinary values are commonly claimed for classical instruction — those values which involve the transfer of improved efficiency. Here no attempt can be made to analyze the pros and cons of transfer values. However, this may be said, that there can be no transfer to other fields of traits which have not been

developed in the original study. Certain it is that habits of mental work, ideals of thoroughness, ideals of accuracy and precision of thought, attitudes toward study and intellectual achievement — these traits cannot be generalized and transferred from the field of classical study to other fields unless they have really been developed in connection with the field of classical study in the first place. *Ex nihilo nihil fit*. Hence it is that those teachers who hope to develop generalized habits and ideals through the study of the Classics must recognize that this certainly cannot be done unless those same habits and ideals are cultivated in connection with classical study itself. Whatever transfer values are legitimately related to classical study must be fostered by the organization of its instruction.

Is classical instruction at present so organized as to meet this demand? Can it be said that classical instruction is so organized as to make its maximum contribution to the development of habits and ideals of thoroughness, of precision and accuracy, of attitudes toward study and intellectual achievement? Doubtless as much as it can be said of any subject. But it must be recognized that we are far from realizing even a reasonable ideal in this respect.

To sum up, it may be said that the conditions of success in teaching the Classics are the same as conditions in any other field of education. They are: first, the adjustment of instruction to the capacities, interests, and needs of the pupils concerned; second, adaptation to the laws of learning; third, the adaptation of instruction to the aims and values for which the Classics are studied. That we are today far from meeting these conditions with anything like completeness should be clear to any observer of existing practice. The opportunity for classical study is greater today than ever before. Will teachers of the Classics permit the opportunity to pass through their failure to adjust themselves to the conditions and demand of modern education?

THE PLACE OF THE CLASSICS IN OUR SCHOOLS¹

By PAYSON SMITH
Commissioner of Education
for Massachusetts

Elementary education has one imperative goal, that of helping the child to get his growth. In childhood, educational processes must be brought to bear in such a way that the boy may come naturally and as completely as possible to the fullness of his physical, moral, mental, and spiritual stature. It is concerned not so much with what the boy is to do when he becomes a man as it is with the kind of man he is to be. The decision as to the work to which his powers are to be devoted may be postponed for a little in order that the nature and extent of his capacity may be disclosed.

But a little later, and especially in the colleges and technical schools, another goal is set. Here education must help the youth to find the kind of service for which he is best adapted and train him for that service.

In secondary education, there exist side by side these two most important and interesting phases of education, because there is still the need of considering the developing nature of the individual while there begins to appear the necessity of helping him to find his work. The process of development or growth is still incomplete, but the problem of the service to be rendered by the individual cannot remain untouched.

Because these two important issues of education thus meet in the secondary school, it becomes necessary to examine and challenge every subject in the secondary school curriculum with reference to its value both as a means of development and as a specific tool. Herein lies the reason for much of the controversy regarding educational values of secondary school subjects. If it is maintained that a subject has value as an aid to personal devel-

¹ Read at the Third Annual Meeting of the American Classical League, Boston, July 3, 1922.

opment, someone is certain to raise the question, "Of what use is it?" On the other hand, if the subject is alleged to do what our pedagogical vocabulary calls "functioning in life," then the question is certain to be raised as to whether the boy is not being deprived of important elements of culture.

Moreover, not only must all education have a primary care for the individual and his needs, but it must likewise have a care for the interests of the whole body. These, of course, are not antagonistic. What in any serious and effective fashion serves the individual will likewise serve the group.

Let it be said that one of the most important aims of education is that of helping each generation to garner and pass on for the use and enjoyment of each succeeding generation those things which study and experience have proven of value in the lives of men and in the development of civilization.

So that the question of the place of the Classics in secondary education must be answered in the light of the value of the Classics in helping the individual youth to his best development; of their importance in making a contribution to his efficiency as a worker in a specific field, and of the contribution which education must make through the individual to the group in the preservation of values.

On the following three points, therefore, I would contend for the value of the Classics. First, as a means of education, it has been demonstrated beyond possibility of doubt that those subjects which help in expression are of greatest value. While realizing that language represents only one mode of expression, I believe that throughout our school program there is the greatest need of more thorough-going instruction in the language arts. I shall spend no time in defense of the proposition that our own language should be more thoroughly taught. The theory that English is now so well taught or that it can be so well taught in the elementary schools as to make necessary only slight attention to it in the higher schools is utterly unsound. Both the secondary schools and especially the colleges are today neglecting the plainest of plain duties in failing to make more insistent requirements in the matter of English in all its phases, construction, composition, ap-

preciation, and literary content. Beyond this, however, I would contend that a knowledge of the English language cannot be perfected unless the learner has in some measure brought to its aid the study of a second language. The advantages of general language study should not be held the right and privilege of an exclusive few. For all normal American youth within the upper elementary and the secondary period, provision should be made for the study of at least one year of Latin and of a modern language other than English if for no other reason than that of a more complete understanding and appreciation of the native tongue.

Again, it must not be forgotten that there are large numbers of our youth who must find through the medium of the Classics their approach to the fields of activity in which they will be most efficient. It is distinctly unfair to those youth who are to enter upon certain vocations that they should be sent by the short cuts which may, to be sure, bring them earlier to the goal of vocational recognition but will do so to their great handicap and loss because of the failure to provide a complete and adequate background.

But on the third point I would lay special stress. The real justification of the maintenance of a school system at public expense is to be found in the contribution that education makes to the development of our common citizenship, using that word in its broadest sense. Large numbers of children are passing through our schools receiving there innumerable reactions flowing out of our current life. The tendency is to place still greater weight upon the importance of the momentary reaction in education. What is going on now in industry, scientific investigation, invention, art, and politics is the thing which must be emphasized and stressed.

In general, one may not take exception to this condition. The flowing current of the daily life provides a richness of educational experience so full that at times it appears one need not look beyond it for educational material for any purpose whatever. Yet how can any thoughtful citizen of the world today disregard the importance of a study of the past experiences of the world? A

people which discards all the lessons which experience has taught, and attempts to defy, even though temporarily, those laws and regulations which, through ages of experimentation, have been proven fundamental in the governance of the industrial, political, and social affairs of men, courts and meets disaster.

In the secondary and higher schools of America, there is the greatest need for America's sake that the youth should have their attention directed to that study of mankind the avenue to which lies in large measure through classical study. Here again I beg to emphasize the obligation resting upon American secondary schools, and here again especially upon American colleges, for vastly increased attention to problems of government and social economy. I believe I could make an adequate defense of an absolute requirement in every American college of a study of the genesis and the development of our American government. That study, however, cannot, as we know, be adequately given unless due attention is paid to the foundations upon which governments rest.

So at once it is clear there is indicated a need of a study of the things which have gone into the making of the nations of many centuries. What is said with reference to government applies with only slightly less force to other fields involving the social relations of the people. There must be a participation of a larger number of our youth in those fundamental studies which make for appreciation and clarity of understanding.

I make no defense of the Classics in secondary education as something preparatory to college. It is fair to exact from each subject in the secondary school, as in any other school, an adequate educational value of the subject itself. Preparation in the narrow sense is a secondary and in some degree an unworthy consideration. But as a means of helping the individual youth to a more complete measure of his development, as a means of opening to him a life of more complete usefulness in a wide variety of vocations, and especially as a means of enriching the service of each generation with the fullness of the experiences of those of the past, the Classics need no defense; they are imperatively needed.

CHARLES EDWIN BENNETT, 1858 — 1921

By MARY B. McELWAIN
Smith College

Of the many students attracted to Cornell to study under Professor Bennett, there are not a few, I dare to believe, who like myself gratefully pay to him in their hearts Cicero's loyal tribute to Archias: *hunc video mihi principem et ad suscipiendam et ad ingrediendam rationem horum studiorum exstitisse*; and echo Cicero's query: *hunc non diligam, non admirer?*

In his Presidential address, delivered before the American Philological Association at Toronto in December, 1908, Professor Bennett declared that "the two essentials of the teacher are a knowledge of his subject, and skill in adaptation to the problem momentarily in hand"; and in himself he exemplified the truth of this statement. He was pre-eminently a teacher, and his teaching was a manifestation of knowledge and of skill in adaptation. One went to his classes, confident of finding knowledge, and one came away, not only enriched by knowledge, but unfailingly stimulated to a higher and broader quest.

He was an exacting teacher, intolerant of shirking or of slipshod recitations, but he was most generous in his praise of good work, and quickly sympathetic with genuine effort, even when it was unsuccessful. For himself and his students he recognized one law, namely that it was incumbent upon each to do his own peculiar task as well as he knew how. The standard of perfection in every detail, to which he rigorously held himself, as well as his students was the secret of his own great success.

His power of maintaining a clear perspective, his alertness in appreciating difficulties from the point of view of his students, his patience in the exposition of a matter, his wise choice of illustrative material, his lucidity of presentation, his forceful and

cogent reasoning, his hospitable reception of challenging views, his genial sense of humor, his quickness in detecting fallacies,—all combined to make his classroom a constant delight, and a perennial source of inspiration. No problem of textual criticism, no study of the syntactical uses of the Latin Subjunctive could ever be regarded as “dry” when studied under the stimulus of his inspiring personality; while the exquisite beauty of his rendering of the classic authors, and the marvelous melody of his reading of Latin poetry were alike the despair of his students, and a potent argument in favor of his theory of Latin Prosody. To be in his class was to feel that he *knew*, and to strive more eagerly for knowledge.

But it was the privilege of many of his students to know him outside the classroom, and to touch more closely a personality of great charm and sweetness. The hospitality of his beautiful home, so graciously offered to us, showed other glimpses of his richly endowed nature. One could not walk with him among his flowers and not feel his passionate love for nature and all its aspects; the quiet beauty and harmony of his library bespoke the connoisseur in more than one line of art. And one constantly felt that his ripe scholarship, far from making him an ascetic recluse, had been mellowed and enriched under the pervasive influence of a widely diversified culture. We learned from him lessons for life no less than for scholastic research, to appraise rightly the things of the spirit as well as to value intellectual acumen, to admire truth and beauty in nature and art, and to scorn hypocrisy and ostentatious display.

Of one of his own teachers, Professor Bennett once wrote, “He was intellectually so honest and so keen, he possessed such power of analysis and illustration, he was so thorough in his training, he was so inspiring in his rendering of the Classics that I look back on those two years as the most valuable educationally of any I ever spent. Every day and hour is a precious memory.” So could I say of him. Swift, tireless, thorough, he accomplished an incredible amount which stands as a lasting memorial to him in the field of scholarship. But to us, his pupils,

he has left the obligation of proving ourselves worthy disciples of his teachings, of upholding his ideals, and of advancing the cause to which he gave his life. And with us will continue to abide the inspiration of his presence, and we shall still in memory

“see him as he moved,
How modest, kindly, all-accomplished, wise.”

TYPES OF LATIN INSTRUCTION

By H. C. NUTTING
The University of California

Among the devices suggested for improving the condition of Latin in the schools is the development of types of courses suited to the needs of various localities. Already, as a matter of fact, considerable attention has been given in some quarters to the attempt to work out a course in vocational Latin for students who have not the time or the aptitude for the regular course.

Unless all signs fail, we shall soon be called upon to decide whether to carry this programme to far greater lengths. In order to be prepared to make an intelligent decision, it will be necessary to look rather closely into the present school situation, lest haply, like the man mentioned in Scripture, we begin to build without first counting the cost.

These considerations have prompted a brief study of the Latin situation in the public high schools of the State of California. The materials are taken in large part from the Directory of Secondary Schools, issued annually by the State Board of Education. This Directory is not free from trifling errors; but it provides a solid foundation for some rather important conclusions.

The figures to be cited below are for the regular four-year public high school course. Intermediate schools, night schools, and commercial, polytechnic, and part time schools offering no Latin are omitted, as not contributing directly to the present purpose. With these eliminations, there still remains a solid block of about three hundred four-year high schools to serve as a basis of discussion.

To one who has followed conditions in California for years, the first outstanding fact that strikes the attention is the profound change that has been wrought in the school curriculum within

a comparatively short time. Among the larger schools, the following is a typical case: Seven years ago the enrollment was 691, with twenty-nine teachers. Four years of Latin were then taught, using the full time of one teacher and half the time of another, i. e., 5% of the teaching power of the school was devoted to Latin. Now the enrollment is 2037, with seventy teachers. Three years in Latin are offered, and a little over 2% of the teaching power of the school is expended on the subject.

It is quite possible that the *number* of students taking Latin in that school has not fallen off much in the course of the seven years; but the position of Latin itself has altered much for the worse. The fourth-year work appears to have been eliminated; and in dignity and importance in the curriculum Latin has declined 50%. Indeed the references to Latin are all but lost in a welter of Domestic Science and Art, Band, Orchestra, Commercial Bookkeeping, Stenography, Typewriting, Printing, Commercial Law, Auto Ignition and Repair, Home Economics, Drama, etc. The printed report naturally does not mention free election, athletics, the social whirl, and the thousand and one distractions that militate against the formation of studious habits.

It is a matter for wonder that anyone at all acquainted with what is going on in the schools should fail to see that the trouble with Latin lies in these changed conditions rather than in the method of teaching used. Beyond a doubt the public high school is becoming the "people's college," and there is more than a hint of danger that the studies essential to preparation for advanced scholarship will be accorded less and less favor there.

For even education is being invaded by the false democratic doctrine that majorities (however ignorant) are always right, and what is good enough for one is good enough for all. Unquestionably, in some places at least, there is a feeling against a type of education that aims to develop leaders through special training. This tendency of human nature is no new thing; Cicero notes (*Tusc. Disp.* v. 105) that the Ephesians expelled Hermodorus from their city because his presence accentuated their own mediocrity. Their verdict was: *Nemo de nobis unus*

excellat; sin quis exstiterit, alio in loco et apud alios sit. Commenting on this, Cicero adds: *An hoc non ita fit omni in populo? Nonne omnem exsuperantiam virtutis oderant?*

The mischief is aggravated by the fact that certain educational leaders have set themselves the task of building up a philosophy that will appear to justify what "the public wants," in some such wise as divines long ago undertook to prove by Scripture that negroes have no souls, in order to justify the institution of human slavery. Here is the peril that threatens all real cultural education in the schools. With the ballot in the hands of uncultured multitudes who have no conception of the value and necessity of higher education, what is the outlook?

There are two ways, at least, in which this matter may be approached. One is to organize prominent people of real culture, and to put the weight of their united influence behind an insistent demand that the public schools, before all else, make adequate and secure provision for the kind of training that their ablest students need as a foundation for subsequent training. Dean West has already collected a considerable body of material that would be very useful in such a direct head-on attack upon the present evil tendencies in the school situation.

The other way is so to weaken and alter and disguise the old disciplines that they can be brought under the aegis of the cheap present day educational theory, catching an unwary student here and there. It is not unnatural that harassed teachers of Latin, with no broad outlook upon the general educational situation, should have turned in this direction in a desperate effort to meet the competition of the newer and easier subjects. And now we are confronted with a proposal to give up any attempt to teach real Latin to the rank and file of students, substituting therefor a course in applied "Latin," in which the emphasis shall be placed upon certain intensively cultivated byproducts, such as the derivation of English words. This certainly is a heroic remedy, if indeed it is a remedy and not abject surrender.

Before proceeding to a consideration of figures, one other point should be made. This can be illustrated by the history of a

smaller school, which seven years ago enrolled 241 students, with eleven teachers. At that time three years of Latin were taught, apparently with rotation of Cicero and Vergil, thus making it possible for a student to cover the four-year reading course. About 10% of the school's teaching power was devoted to this work. The enrollment is now 616, with twenty-two teachers. Two years of Latin are offered, using about 3% of the teaching force of the school.

The special point to be made, however, is that in this school, with enrollment of 616 students, there is no opportunity to take third and fourth-year Latin. Most students take beginning Latin and Caesar in their first two years; hence those who go on to college and wish to continue the study of Latin there are at a great disadvantage because of the interval of two years in which they have had no Latin. In California this presents a serious problem; for, of the public schools offering Latin, more than one-half do not carry the subject beyond the second year. In such schools there is obvious need to make the short course as rich as possible.

The following table gives a bird's eye view of the whole situation. In a few cases the total school enrollment was not given. Where exact figures are lacking, an estimate is made on the basis of the number of teachers on the staff.

Total enrollment of school	No. of schools	Years of Latin offered				
		0 yrs.	1 yr.	2 yrs.	3 yrs.	4 yrs.
19-99	105	32	30	40	3	0
100-199	76	12	9	45	6	4
200-299	32	4	3	20	4	1
300-399	15	3	1	7	2	2
400-499	15	0	1	7	6	1
500-599	13	2	0	4	6	1
600-699	6	0	0	3	0	3
700-799	6	0	0	1	2	3
800-899	1	0	1	0	0	0
900-999	4	0	0	0	2	2
1000-1999	14	0	0	1	3	10
2000-2999	9	0	0	0	2	7
3000-9735	3	0	0	1	0	2
	299	53	45	129	36	36

In this table, the first line shows that there are 105 schools with a total enrollment under a hundred. Of these 32 offer no Latin, 30 have one year¹, 40 two years, 3 three years, and none four years. The second line gives the statistics for the schools enrolling 100-199 pupils, etc.

Two outstanding facts are at once brought to light. First, that the schools with an enrollment under 300 stand in a group by themselves. Together they number 213 (more than two-thirds of the total), and only 18 of them carry Latin beyond the second year (it should be noted of course that 48 offer no Latin at all). Here is a very distinct problem.

The other fact appears at the end of the table in connection with the large city schools enrolling more than a thousand students. There are 26 such schools, only two of which offer as little Latin as two years; 5 have three years, and 19 the full four-year course.

The scattering vote of the schools lying between these two extremes does not appear to be significant, and the present discussion may well be confined to the two main groups.

If it should be proposed to carry on two types of Latin instruction simultaneously in the same school, the natural field for such an experiment would be sought in the 26 large city schools. For, outside that small group, the Latin enrollment probably would seldom be sufficient to justify such a subdivision. Indeed, within the group itself it is safe to assume offhand sufficient enrollment for this purpose; at any rate it is noted that in two of the schools offering the full four-year Latin course, a single teacher now handles all the work.

In the large group of small schools with total enrollment under 300, it must be obvious that only one type of Latin instruction could be supported by a given school. This brings the matter to a sharp issue. (Shall we continue to teach Latin as such in these schools, or shall we, without a struggle, surrender to the com-

¹ This single year in several cases is not beginning Latin, but second or even third-year Latin. This would mean normally that beginners of an earlier year are being carried forward, though no new classes are organized in the subject.

mercial spirit of the times and put in a course in applied "Latin" that aims at something else than a mastery of the language?

It will be contended, doubtless, that there is no such sharp issue. Indeed we are bidden to hope that this applied "Latin" will prove as good a foundation as the standard course for those who wish to carry the study of Latin into subsequent years. But is there any real ground for such a hope? Certainly the teachers are now everywhere complaining that it is almost impossible to bring classes through on time. What would happen if they were obliged so to change their method as to give most of their attention to studies in the derivation of English words and the like? Let the experienced teachers of Latin answer.

If, for them, the program would be difficult or impossible, what shall we say of the people who teach Latin in the schools that have but a two-year course in that subject? Two Latin classes generally occupy less than half of a teacher's time, and it by no means follows that this work is put in the hands of a Latin specialist, who fills up a teaching schedule with other things. It is quite as apt to be the other way about, the teacher of some other subject "taking the Latin,"—often unwillingly, sometimes even with tears, because of conscious unfitness for the task.

These are not pleasant facts to consider; but the issues now being raised make it necessary to face them frankly. Under what conditions would teachers so circumstanced have the better chance to ground their classes in Latin? By allowing them to follow the charted standard course with which they were at some time themselves familiar, or by forcing them to attempt something that is beyond the power of all excepting a small group of specially trained and experienced teachers?

The standard method of teaching Latin is coming to be called "college Latin" to distinguish it from the applied varieties. If an extreme program were put through (as seems designed), it apparently would mean that applied Latin would be prescribed to the schools with enrollment large enough to justify only one type of instruction, provided that the majority of students did not intend to go to college.

If this plan were carried out, apparently the results for the state of California would be as follows: The great mass of the small schools with their two-year Latin course would be given over to applied Latin; and, under the teaching conditions there prevailing, little or nothing could be expected in the way of solid training in real Latin. If two types of instruction were instituted in schools with Latin enrollment sufficient to support the two, the standard course in real Latin would be restricted to part time in a small group of the large city schools.

This is a question that needs to be weighed with extreme care, remembering two things: First, that Dr. Eliot, one of the bitterest foes of Latin, has long advocated the restriction of Latin teaching to the larger schools, and, second, that it was by the loss of the smaller schools that Greek started on the downward way to the level it has now reached.

Shall we then abandon the small schools to pseudo-Latin? Or shall we hold to the old tried lines, endeavoring, of course, to make the work as rich and full as it is possible to make it for students who have but two years to devote to Latin?

It is quite likely that the situation in many of the Western states is more or less similar to the conditions in California. Possibly, too, in some states at least, materials are available for a study like this. If so, it is to be hoped that volunteers will look into the matter, in order that an intelligent choice may be made when the question of future policy comes up for settlement.

"PROSE" OR "POETRY" FIRST?¹

By WALTER A. EDWARDS
Los Angeles High School

The question of what to read first in the way of connected discourse is probably the question of today in classical circles. For years the canonical authors in this country were Caesar and Xenophon. Then the young folk and part of the teachers went on a strike: most of the former dropping Latin after their introduction to Caesar, if not before; and seventy-five percent of the latter who replied to our questionnaire of a year ago being eager to find a substitute. A large proportion of these rebels propose trying some "made Latin" as a preliminary to the reading of a classical author. I take it that they do so in sheer despair of finding a suitable text; for one in his senses would hardly prefer "made Latin" to the real thing.

It is, therefore, the purpose of the writer to offer Homer's *Iliad* in Greek and Ovid's *Metamorphoses* in Latin as suitable authors for introduction to their respective literatures.

This proposal raises the whole question of "poetry" versus "prose" as the first connected discourse read. In the discussion I shall, to quote Socrates, rely not on theory but on facts; hence I shall begin with a brief survey of my experience with the *Iliad* as a substitute for the *Anabasis*. The experiment has covered a period of four years: one in high school, three in college. The high school students had all had at least a year of Latin; nearly half of the college students had had practically no Latin.

I conduct the course somewhat as follows: I spend two to three weeks on the alphabet, accents, declensions, and the active and middle indicative of the verb. I use White's *First Greek Book*. The class then begins the first book of the *Iliad*. I choose

¹ Read at the meeting of the Classical Associations of the Pacific States, Southern Section, April, 1922.

the *Iliad* because Homer is a name to conjure by, and the first book because every line is worth while. For several weeks the text is done at sight; care is taken to give the class nothing for which it is not ready. Gradually a few lines are assigned in addition to the work done at sight. By Christmas ten lines or more are the daily stint; this becomes twenty lines by Easter. By the end of the year the class will have read over and over again all the first book; the *Thersites incident* in the second; *Helen on the walls* in the third; the *parting of Hector and Andromache* in the sixth; the *death of Hector* in the twenty-second; and the *ransoming of his body* in the twenty-third: about two thousand lines in all. The high school class will do about half of this amount.

Along with the text go daily lessons in White. By the end of the year the college classes will finish the book, including the mastery of the principal parts of one hundred irregular verbs. There is no need of telling successful teachers how to handle the beginning book; suffice it to say that I insist upon the observance of the ordinary rules for accent.

In Homer for the first semester every word as it comes up is treated etymologically for its cognates and derivatives. The second semester I assign about five hundred of our most important Greek derivatives for mastery. *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*, Clarendon Press, Oxford, is a "Vade mecum" in this phase of our study.

With this brief survey we may now proceed to the pros and cons of the question. I find the latter well and fairly put forth in Professor Robbins' review of Professor Pharr's book in the *Classical Journal* of April, 1921. Professor Robbins discusses the question of prose versus poetry under the heads: relative interest; relative difficulty, in vocabulary and in forms; and as a preparation for reading prose.

He acknowledges that Homer is more interesting than most prose writers, especially if read in small assignments. The same may be said of Ovid if the investigations of Professor Lane Cooper and the testimony of students in great numbers can be taken as a criterion. This concession of Professor Robbins' is very significant; the truth is that Homer, and Ovid, too, teach

themselves. The teacher is thus relieved of the enormous drain on her vitality that is required to make such an author as Caesar go. Psychology also is involved. Love of stories comes early; that of history, later. As a devotee of Caesar I would postpone his study until the student has arrived at the historical age.

As to relative difficulty, Professor Robbins and others argue that the vocabulary of Homer, or of Ovid, is much more comprehensive, therefore more difficult. My experience shows that there is little to this objection. Homer and Ovid are so much more psychologically suited to young students and are so much freer from difficulties in sentence structure than ordinary prose that much time is left for the proper approach to a real mastery of vocabulary. Most students, if left to themselves, learn words by rote, not by root. My experience with Caesar in the second year of the high school is that the energies of the class are so absorbed with sentence difficulties that only a cursory attention may be given to acquiring words through etymology. Homer and Ovid are so easy that time can be taken for finding a cognate or a derivative for practically every word. If this is done for a semester, there will be, if I may cite what the farmer said about the giraffe, no such beast as "vocabulary difficulty."

The relative ease of Homer and Ovid as compared with the canonical prose also leaves time and energy for clinching word mastery by repeated reviews of the text. For days or weeks the review should begin at the beginning of the book, or story. A class so conducted soon rejoices when in review it can read two to three hundred lines in thirty to forty minutes and that it is emancipated from the tyranny of the dictionary. I am bold to say, therefore, that the vocabulary argument makes for rather than against "poetry first."

Professor Robbins also feels that the poetical forms may cause trouble. This objection obviously applies more to Homer than to Ovid. After years of trial I find nothing to the objection. I agree entirely with Professor Pharr that it is easier to learn the forms historically than to memorize them outright. Here again psychology comes into play. What might be the result if one followed Professor Pharr's method of preparing for Homer just

as the old books did for Xenophon I cannot say, but I can vouch for the truth of the following conclusion: Start a class in some well organized beginning book; when forms first appear, give the Homeric; do all the exercises, both Greek and English; have written work every day, particularly on the board; do this and you will find the Homeric forms gradually displaced in the consciousness of the pupil without materially interfering, however, with his recognition of those forms in the text of Homer. After the tenth week rarely do I find a student using a Homeric form in his exercises. This result comes naturally with practically no insistence on the part of the instructor. I can also say this, that a class taught as above outlined has not a moiety of the difficulty in passing from Homer to Attic prose that classes have in reversing the process.

Professor Robbins says little about the difficulty that is said to arise in the early use of poetry from the fact that the poetic order is freer. I regard this characteristic of poetry as being not only not an objection to the use of poetry before prose but a positive reason for doing so. If I have observed correctly, one of the chief troubles with the average student brought up on prose is that he is mechanical in his approach to translation; he lacks the power of visualization. He cannot use the context in checking up on his results; hence with the greatest sang-froid he will have Caesar march twice as far as from here to the moon in seven days. Prose like the *Gallic War* and the *Anabasis* is far less stimulating to the imagination than Homer and Ovid. It is also so much more complicated in sentence structure that the members of the class, entangled in a labyrinth of clauses, participles, and infinitives, cannot react to what stimulation there is; hence the student brought up on prose is like the man from Missouri—he must be shown; whereas the one reared on Homer or Ovid with the opportunities for sight-reading, review, and etymology that go with the less complex structure of these poets adjusts himself much more readily to the facts needed for arriving at a correct translation. The fledgling has found that he has wings and he is eager to use them.

The last objection made to the use of poetry before prose is that the transition from the one to the other is difficult to make. My experience leads me to the conclusion that there is little in this point. The greater grasp of vocabulary, the freer approach to translation, the greater power of visualization gained through such authors as Homer enable the student, as far as I have observed, to cope with the difficulties of Plato no less readily than those who have been trained in the traditional way.

And what about the reverse! the passage from prose to poetry! When I think of the hours that a graduate of Caesar and Cicero or of Xenophon has to put on the first ten lines of Vergil or of Homer, I am inclined to smile at the charge that poetry is a poor preparation for prose. Besides, I wonder if the objector to "poetry first" has ever noticed that the child and the race come to prose through verse: witness *Mother Goose rhymes*, *Cinderella*, *Pied Piper*; *Homer*, *Plautus*, *Song of Roland*, *Beowulf*, and the *Nibelungenlied*. The student of biology teaches us that the child in its growth goes through the various stages of the evolution of the race. Why not apply the findings of science to our pedagogy?

In conclusion, if anyone says to you that he is opposed to poetry before prose because the vocabulary of the former is harder, because poetry is harder to translate, and because it forms a poor approach to prose, will you not put to him the question that Benjamin Franklin is said to have put to his French friends who referred to him the problem in physics why a tub of water of a given weight would weigh no more if a fish were put in it. "Gentlemen," he said, "have you tried it?" Try such stories from Ovid as *Midas*, *Philemon and Baucis*, and *Atalanta's Race*. At first do everything at sight, having the class study put on derivatives and review work, both oral and written. Omit an occasional difficult sentence. Review the translation much and often. Teach a literary appreciation of the stories. Try this for several years and see if you will not save a large proportion of the eighty-five percent of Latin students who never go beyond the second year.

LATIN AS THE INTERNATIONAL AUXILIARY LANGUAGE¹

By ROLAND G. KENT
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Man needs a means of exchanging his thoughts with his fellowman; it may be while he is a soldier in a great cause under a commander from another nation, or when he is in a conference at Paris, or at Washington, or at Genoa, or at the Hague; he may be participating in the Council of the League of Nations; he may be seeking to sell his merchandise, or to discuss matters of a professional or of a scholarly nature, or merely to exchange ideas with men of other countries and secure a better and more sympathetic understanding of their viewpoints. "Merely," did I say? Perhaps this last is the most important of all, for such understanding, more than anything else, is potent to promote peace and good will among the nations.

But the presence of many languages is the obstacle, an obstacle which can be overcome only by the concerted acceptance of some one language to be learned by all men, or by all men who learn a second language, in addition to their mother tongue. Such a language would not be intended to replace any existing national language, but would rather foster present-day languages by making converse with foreigners easy even for those who speak the less important dialects; neither would it seek to displace French in international diplomacy, nor English in international business, nor any other language now internationally used — it would seek merely to supplement, in a wider fashion, the present existing agencies of spoken and written communication, and it is therefore termed the INTERNATIONAL AUXILIARY LANGUAGE.

This problem, often discussed before, came up in definite form

¹ Read at the Third Annual Meeting of the American Classical League, Boston, July 3, 1922.

at the meeting of the International Research Council in Brussels in August, 1919, and several committees have since that time been wrestling with it. We cannot here go into the history of the movement; but there are evidently three possibilities, a modern language, a so-called dead language, and an artificial language. Of the modern languages, English has the best claim on the ground of widespread use in commerce and of simplicity of structure; and if natural selection were allowed to take its course, it is likely that before the end of the century English would be the accepted international language. But the jealousies of the time preclude such acceptance of English, and the world's immediate needs demand quicker results. We must look elsewhere. Among the "dead" languages Latin is obviously the choice. Of artificial languages, Esperanto is unquestionably the leading claimant, though its improved form, Ido, is decidedly better. We must, it seems, look either to Latin or to Esperanto.

What, now, are the qualifications for an International Auxiliary Language? Briefly, the sounds must be easy for most persons to make, the word roots and the forms must be easy to learn, the language must be easy to speak and easy to understand, expression and understanding must be precise and not ambiguous. Euphony and brevity, while desirable, are not essentials.

As for pronunciation, Esperanto has several sounds (English *ch*, *ts*, *j*, *sh*, French *j*, German *ch*), some of which are strange and therefore difficult to the speakers of every language of western Europe; Latin has almost no sounds offering this difficulty, except some occurring in but a few words each. Further the use in Esperanto of *c* in the Slayonic value *ts* and of *j* in the German value *y*, makes unnecessary hardships for speakers of several languages. The use by Esperanto of diacritical marks over six letters **ĉ** **ĝ** **ĥ** **ĵ** **ŝ** **ŭ** makes typesetting needlessly difficult; Latin has no such encumbrances. In accent, Esperanto, placing the accent regularly on the last syllable but one, has a certain advantage over Latin, which places it on that syllable or on the preceding one; yet the variation in Latin is largely to be formulated in a few simple rules, and the remainder might be indicated by an accent mark, as in Spanish.

The easiest vocabulary is one made up of words which appear practically unchanged in the greatest number of languages. Thus *superintendent, senate, verify, notice, state, butter*, are found in but slightly changed form in many languages. Esperanto is not made up on this principle, but on the political principle of selecting some roots from every language whose speakers are to be placated; thus it contains a considerable number of Russian, German, and Greek words which are unfamiliar except to the speakers of those languages. The reformed Esperanto, or Ido, is made up on the basis of the internationality of the roots, and it looks like a somewhat unfamiliar Romance language; for almost all the words which have spread from language to language are Latin in origin, or Greek words which pass through Latin, except *beefsteak* and *tobacco*. If, then, maximum internationality of words leads to this, why not use Latin itself, which has this international vocabulary? So on the count of ease of vocabulary Latin has the advantage over Esperanto.

In forms Esperanto is very simple; but this very simplicity contains a disadvantage, since a single sound is often so heavily charged with meaning that an undue speed in comprehension is demanded; drop an *n* in the participle, and the perfect active indicative becomes a present passive indicative; change an unaccented *a* to *i*, and the present indicative becomes the past, or to *o*, and it becomes the future. As the chief element of difficulty in understanding a foreign language is the speed, the ease of learning the forms in Esperanto is counterbalanced by an increased difficulty in understanding them aright.

Even the syntax of Esperanto has its anomalies; prepositions govern the nominative case, unless there is an idea of motion toward, when they govern the accusative. Finally, the alleged lack of idiom in Esperanto is claimed as a merit, but it is quite the reverse. Every modern language is full of idiomatic expressions. The International Auxiliary Language is, in the final analysis, intended for the use of persons who know only their mother tongues and the I. A. L.; if they know other languages, that is a fortuitous circumstance. Now in what way can such

persons eliminate the idioms from their own speech before they put it into Esperanto? And if they do not, the Esperanto is quite unintelligible in spots. I have found phrases in Esperanto which I could not understand until I had put them into German, which was evidently the language of the writer. For example, a certain phrase is in the various European languages, *before three years, it has there three years, it makes three years*; will the person who knows only English and Esperanto understand any of these, when turned into Esperanto and thence into English? True, Esperanto has a central organization which strives to give precision in such matters; but this can be done only by the creation of idioms, the avoidance of which is one of the *raisons d'être* of Esperanto. On the other hand, Latin has a perfectly fixed standard of meaning, yet it has little or none of the illogical abnormal idioms which run riot in most modern languages. We must lay stress on the certainty of understanding aright our international speech; and from this standpoint, Latin is eminently well qualified.

Latin, in fact, has never ceased to be an international language, even apart from the modern forms of it which are spoken as the national languages of France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Roumania, Central and South America, and other countries. It is the official language of the Roman Catholic Church; it is the technical vehicle of anatomy, zoology, chemistry, botany, and other sciences, botany even requiring the first publication of a newly discovered plant to be made in Latin if it is to be valid; it is the language of the prescriptions of physicians, to prevent dangerous or fatal misunderstandings; it is still the language of many books and shorter articles intended for an international public.

But shall we look forward to the Latin of Cicero as our I. A. L.? Cicero did the Latin language a real disservice by developing the complicated periodic sentence, and setting a standard of complexity for the future. We cannot seriously propose such a style; it is too difficult to speak, it is too difficult to understand. Shall we then go to the other extreme, and adopt a flexionless Latin, such as that which has been proposed by Professor Peano

and is now known as *Interlingua*? This consists essentially in the use of stems, uninflected. Let me give you a sample: *to erra es de homo* "to err is human," *omni re muta, nullo more* "all things change, nothing dies." The more I consider it, and similar schemes, the less I like it. It has defects which are not shared by Esperanto nor by Ido, and lacks the advantages of Latin. We must look rather to the late Middle and early Modern Ages, when Latin was still in vernacular use among even the reasonably educated classes and was a true international auxiliary language. There we find a Latin which differs from the classical model in having many new words which have persisted in the modern languages, and many old words in the new meanings very like those which their derivatives have in the modern languages—a Latin which in structure and in arrangement comes astonishingly near the modern languages, though it keeps essentially the forms and syntax of classical Latin, the chief syntactical variation being a substitution for indirect discourse. To such a Latin we should have to add today new words to express modern ideas; but the words are all at hand, made from Latin and Latinized Greek; *aeroplane, locomotive, automobile, telegraph*—replace the endings, and they are Latin words. Such Latin is easy, amazingly easy to one who sees it for the first time after being brought up on Cicero and Vergil.

As for pronunciation, we have the choice of the so-called Roman pronunciation or of a continental method. The continental methods agree in palatalizing certain consonants before certain vowels, and have but minor differences among themselves. Of them the Italian method is preferable, and it has moreover a wide currency outside of Italy as the official pronunciation of the Roman Catholic Church. English-speaking persons use practically the same palatalizations of consonants in speaking English, and would find little difficulty in adjusting the Roman pronunciation to the Italian. We must therefore use the Italian pronunciation. True, it is not historically the pronunciation of Caesar and Cicero, but we have seen it to be better to speak Latin of a later time, good Latin none the less;

and the Italian pronunciation has an honorable history of over one thousand years.

Now how is such Latin to be taught, and who is to teach it? To answer the second question first, in Homeric fashion, we have a great body of trained teachers of Latin, who with very brief but intensive preparation for this special task will be fitted for teaching Latin as the I. A. L. But for Esperanto a whole new set of teachers would have to be found, and, in view of the rules of tenure of position, the adoption of Esperanto would mean that most teachers of Latin would have to fit themselves to teach Esperanto—the present exponents of Esperanto would not, as they perhaps fancy, step into positions in the schools while the teachers of Latin would meekly step out. Latin would then be taught as a spoken language, not as a language merely to be read; and method books in considerable numbers have been prepared and are available. That these would have to be modified is unquestionable, if we are to use a late form of Latin with the Italian pronunciation; but the transfer from a more classical form of Latin to a late form and from the Roman to the Italian pronunciation are not features of tremendous difficulty. We should have to have schools in which these methods could be practiced, tested, and demonstrated; and once the demonstration had been made, we should have to secure the support of educational authorities, making Latin so taught the first foreign language studied in the schools, with favorable opportunity for the continuance of it throughout the school course. This would not imperil the position of other foreign languages, for the training in Latin would still be, even as it is now, an invaluable preparation for the study of other tongues. And Latin would still yield fruits in mental discipline and in the power of clear thinking and in the other by-products which now attend its study. If the United States were to take the lead in this with the co-incident support of some other great nation, other countries would speedily follow, partly because of the traditional strength of Latin in their schools, partly out of self-interest, and partly from sentimental reasons (as in the Romance-speaking lands, where there is an ancestral pride in Latin.)

We believe that as an International Auxiliary Language Latin has advantages possessed by no other language; Latin is free from international prejudices, is easy to pronounce, is largely international in its vocabulary, is precise in its significance, is already extensively used in many and varying ways between persons who have no other language in common. Latin moreover gives a mental training, a power of clear thinking, an improved appreciation of our own vernacular, an understanding of grammatical categories, a solid foundation for other foreign languages, the entrance to one of the great literatures of the world. An artificial language can make but one claim to recognition, namely, that it may be used as a medium of speech between persons of different lands; this service Latin can render equally well in addition to its other functions. In early days the Latin language used one word, *hostis*, both for *stranger* and for *enemy*, and said *militiae* "at war" as a natural antithesis to *domi* "at home." Today, as the International Auxiliary Language, Latin may give to the stranger far from home the ability to share his feelings and ideas, his hopes and aspirations; and the stranger will no longer be a presumptive enemy, but a peaceful friend and welcome guest.

AN APPEAL FOR THE THESAURUS LINGUAE LATINAE¹

By W. A. OLDFATHER
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The cause of the classics is essentially a cause of learning. We may delve into the written and monumental records of the great civilizations of Greece and Rome for many different motives—to furnish an elegant and ennobling employment for our leisure hours; to elevate and refine our taste in literature and the fine arts; to study the causes and processes of progress and decadence in one of mankind's greatest periods of achievement; to trace the origin of literary types, the sources of poetic inspiration, the beginnings of our social and religious institutions; to give background, perspective and proportion to our view of history, that we may act intelligently in the parts which we too must play; to avoid conspicuous and proven errors and to emulate sagacious and successful policies and procedures—in a word to face our present duties and to solve our present problems fully equipped with the accumulated wisdom and experience of two of the most gifted races of men. But the foundation and prerequisite of every one of these utilizations of the classical heritage is precise and thoughtful knowledge, comprehensive and accurate learning. We may not trust to luck or tact, to inspiration or intuition, however valuable these may prove to be in other types of action and achievement. We must know the facts as they actually were before we are justified in drawing conclusions from them, and we must ever expand the range of our inquiries and add refinement and precision to our methods, raising new questions as new material becomes available, and as new points of interest arise in the intellectual currents of our times. If the venerable tradition of classical studies stands for anything, it

¹Read at the Third Annual Meeting of the American Classical League, Boston, July 3, 1922.

means learning, comprehensive, exact, expanding. And therefore no audience like this, composed of friends of the Classics, can feel that anything which pertains to a great project of classical learning is alien to it. We may be unable to give material assistance; it is impossible that we should withhold our sympathy.

The cause which I have been requested to present to you today is that of the *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae*, a lexicon and treasury of the Latin language from the earliest inscriptions of the fourth or fifth century before Christ down to the works of Saint Isidore of Spain in the seventh century of the Christian era; perhaps the greatest single undertaking of co-operative scholarship, when one considers the number and the distinction of those scholars who have brought it to its present state, the difficulties of the task, its degree of completeness, and the wide range of interests which it serves. Let me give a very brief sketch of its inception and organization, its character and the services that it is designed to render.

It is now almost a century since Friedrich August Wolf published a proposal for the preparation of a great thesaurus-lexicon of the Latin language. He had hoped to secure the aid of the classical scholars of England, France, Germany, Italy, and the smaller states of Europe in a truly international organization, but the time was not ripe, and after some correspondence with David Ruhnken the effort came to naught. Again in 1858 King Maximilian II of Bavaria was almost on the point of establishing a similar enterprise under the supervision of that great triumvirate, Ritschl, Halm, and Fleckeisen, but the proposed grant was finally diverted to other uses. It was not until 1883 that the present work was actually begun, after a fashion, with the establishment, under the editorship of Eduard Wölfflin and with the aid of the Bavarian Academy, of the *Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie*, a journal devoted to the collection and the critical study of the materials for the great lexicon. To the fifteen volumes of this valuable journal scholars from all over the world, including, I am proud to record, not a few Americans, like Abbott, Bennett, Lease, Meader, C. H. Moore, Rand, Rolfe, Sanders, and others,

contributed important preliminary studies, and prepared the first tentative drafts of a few articles for the *Thesaurus* itself. In 1889 Martin Hertz made so stirring an appeal and presented so practical a plan, in an address before a gathering of philologists at Görlitz, that the Prussian *Kultusministerium* was moved to take the proposal under advisement, and in a short while, with the active support of many scholars, chief among whom perhaps was Theodore Mommsen, Franz Bücheler and Eduard Wölfflin, in 1893 completed the final plans for collecting the material. These were approved by the Academies of Berlin, Leipzig, Göttingen, Munich, and Vienna, which made adequate subventions for the preliminary labors, and the enterprise was fairly launched.

There was to be listed on cards every word from every Latin writer, no matter how fragmentary or unimportant, from the beginning as far as to the age of the Antonines (together with a few others like Apuleius, Commodian, the Vulgate, portions of Tertullian and the like), of all inscriptions in verse and of all the important portions of inscriptions in prose. From the age of the Antonines down to Saint Isidore excerpts only were prepared, but these have been steadily enlarged as the work has progressed. Finally all modern critical material in *opuscula*, dissertations, programs, and serials was collected and arranged similarly upon cards. Nearly every text was revised by a competent, often a distinguished, scholar, for the amount of gratuitous labor on the part of highly skilled specialists was truly astonishing, evidence of the enthusiasm and devotion to the advancement of science which the undertaking had evoked. Upon large filing cards complete passages, with all important textual variants, were entered, and these were then multiplied by a lithographic process as many times as there were different words in the passage concerned. Each separate word was then underscored and entered in the upper right-hand corner, and after that the cards were filed alphabetically under the author's name, so that there appeared, when the work was done, a complete concordance-index for each word in every Latin author of the first four centuries, together with all the important words from every author for the

remainder of the period covered. Under the supervision of Friedrich Leo at Göttingen the poets and the inscriptions were thus indexed and excerpted; under the supervision of Eduard Wölfflin at Munich the same was done for the prose writers. In a little more than five years, that is, in the fall of 1899, the collection was completed and transferred to Munich, where in the Academy building the cards were stored and arranged in order for use. At this time the cards numbered about 4,500,000, while the number now has reached 10,000,000.

And here let me pause to remark that this collection of material retains a large measure of its original value, even after the publication of the articles which are based upon it. For the cards are rearranged after they have once been used, and instead of being filed as originally under the name of each separate author, they are grouped alphabetically under the separate words arranged according to the authors in which they occur. There is thus gradually growing up a great concordance-lexicon on cards showing all the material upon which the articles in the *Thesaurus* are based, and these cards are open at all times to the inspection of any one who desires to use them for scientific purposes. Not only that, for few can travel to Munich and inspect this material personally, the staff of the *Thesaurus* is always ready to examine the collections and report upon them, giving the references to all the passages not cited in the printed articles, and reporting in full upon all words which have not been reached in the process of publication. And I should also add in this connection that the present Director, Dr. Georg Dittmann, has requested me to announce that he will undertake to provide for all such work being done accurately at a moderate cost. The present fee is 20 marks an hour for time actually spent, that is, about seven cents, a very low rate indeed for highly expert labor, and I am glad to be able to testify that the quality of the service is impeccable.

This permanent preservation of the material upon which the *Thesaurus* is based is a necessity, because obviously not every instance of every word can be listed in the printed articles —

there would be no end of publication, and the lexicon would become almost useless even to the specialist. Of course in the case of rare words every appearance is actually recorded, but with the commoner ones a representative selection is made, and all such articles in the recent volumes, beginning with the third, are specially marked, so that one can tell at a glance whether he has all the existing evidence before him or not.

In October, 1899, Dr. Friedrich Vollmer, with an Assistant Director and a staff of eleven young Doctors of Philosophy, took charge of the publication, and the first fascicle appeared from the press the next year. In 1905 Dr. Vollmer was succeeded as director by Dr. Lommatzsch, and in 1912 he in turn by Dr. Georg Dittmann, the present director. It is a pleasure also to record that for a number of years one of our well-known American Latinists, Dr. Alfred Gudeman, was actively employed and took a part in the preparation of the fifth and sixth volumes.

The general plan of the articles is as follows: First comes the word in its accepted spelling, then a very brief indication of the etymology (where this is not at once obvious, as in compounds, a note is added by Professor Thurneysen—but it should be made clear that only accepted results are recorded, and that without discussion, for the *Thesaurus* is not an etymological dictionary), then follow the various forms that occur, when these are of any interest or significance, the variant spellings, the discussion and comment upon the word by ancient authors, a brief indication of what writers employ it and, if it is at all common, what considerable writers do not (frequently valuable information, and, I believe, a unique feature of this particular lexicon), then a very brief list of the direct derivatives in all the Romance languages from the hand of Professor Meyer-Lübke. After this follows the history of the word and of its meanings in the general, particular, tropical or metaphorical uses, the common word-combinations and phrases, and the like, all arranged, as far as is possible, in accordance with the postulated semasiological development, and with the citations in strict chronological order, and finally the direct Latin derivatives are given. Another not-

able feature is the inclusion of all proper nouns, personal and local, so that that this lexicon is also an incomparable collection of historical, geographical, and topographical information.

Of course I would not give you to understand that all this work is perfect — far from it; it is made by ordinary men not naturally wiser or more gifted than the rest of us, although perhaps a little more industrious than the average; inevitably most of the work is done by relatively young scholars; every man is entitled to make some mistakes, and a young man may well be expected to make a good many. Especially in the earlier volumes there are not a few omissions and errors, due in part to the necessity of beginning sometime, for if publication had been delayed until everything was in perfect shape, nothing would ever have been done at all. But in the great card concordance-lexicon are stored the materials upon which any revision must be based, and these will ever remain accessible to the scholars of all lands, so that the *Thesaurus*, unlike many other similar undertakings, is engaged steadily in gathering and arranging the very matter which will enable future generations to correct its errors and to amplify and make more precise its results.

As to its progress, the first volume bears the date 1900, (although it was begun and not completed in that year), the second 1906, the third 1907, the fourth 1909; of the fifth, the first six fascicles appeared between 1910 and 1915, of the sixth, the first five fascicles appeared between 1913 and 1921. The Great War of course cut down the staff and delayed progress, so that in the last eight years only five fascicles have been brought out, that is, somewhat less than one-half of one volume out of the sixteen or seventeen which apparently the completed work will require.

On the side of operation and maintenance it should be said that the control is in the hands of a commission appointed by the five great Universities of the German-speaking world, Berlin, Vienna, Munich, Leipzig, and Göttingen, the present commission consisting of Diels, Hauler, Heinze, Lommatzsch, Norden, Plasberg, Reitzenstein, and Vollmer. The same Academies have hitherto met the expenses of the modest salaries of the staff, and are now

contributing annually 64,000 M., about \$2,100. This past year some help has come from the Bavarian Civil Service, about 44,000 M., or about \$1,450. 59,300 M., or nearly \$2,000, were contributed also by several governments, foundations, and societies, most of it by the "Notgemeinschaft" out of funds raised by friends of science and scholarship outside the limits of the former German Empire. The salary of the director, less than that of an ordinary high school teacher in this country, is met by the Prussian Government, which has granted him indefinite leave for this service. The secretary is living on his retiring allowance as a Gymnasium teacher, which is paid by the State of Bavaria. One other assistant is supported on a fellowship granted by the Government of Switzerland. The printing is provided for by the firm of B. G. Teubner and Company in Leipzig, which meets all the expenses of this nature.

Perhaps something should be said also about the comparative scale of the *Thesaurus*. Taking the first three letters of the alphabet, I find that the Harper's lexicon of Lewis and Short devotes what amounts to about 900,000 words to them, the *Thesaurus* on the other hand approximately 7,500,000; it is thus something more than eight times as detailed. Comparison with the Oxford English Dictionary, to us the best known lexicographical work which is really in a class with the *Thesaurus*, shows that the former, despite its gigantic range, the multitude of dialectic forms and variant spellings, and the almost portentous copiousness of the English vocabulary, exceeds the bulk of the *Thesaurus* upon the first three letters of the alphabet by a scant two percent. Or, if one takes a very rough estimate indeed of what the completed work in each case will include, it seems probable that the English Dictionary will surpass the Latin in size by not more than one-tenth; while, despite the fact that the *Thesaurus* includes all proper nouns, in view of the much more restricted vocabulary of Latin, the treatment of each individual word in the *Thesaurus* is much more detailed than in the Oxford Dictionary.

But what after all is the value of this mass of systematized learning? One hesitates even to ask the question, for it is im-

possible to summarize in a few moments what should require hours for adequate portrayal and illustration; but the attempt must be made. And first, there is not a single phase of classical studies which is not illumined by the precise determination of the meanings, especially in their more recondite employment, of every ancient Latin word. The student of history, geography, topography, and nomenclature will possess a priceless *subsidiū* in this complete collection of all the material upon any name, and the labor involved in gathering one's data will in many instances be no longer necessary, with all that this means in saving time and thereby increasing the productivity of scholarship. The drudgery of editing texts will be greatly reduced when the editor has before him all the available evidence upon the possible and approved prosody, forms, spellings, usages, and constructions of every word. No longer will so many precious hours have to be spent in turning over the pages of dissertations and ephemeral literature of long ago in search of a particular bit of desired information. Commentators also will have a full collection of parallels and illustrations for linguistic and stylistic illumination, and in due time there will become universal the already well-established usage of saving space, time, and printer's charges by referring to the precise passage in the *Thesaurus* for confirmatory and illustrative evidence, and printing only accessions of new material and corrections of erroneous opinions. The study of sources and models in every aspect of vocabulary and style, with all that this signifies for a scientific knowledge of literature and history, will be notably furthered. The lexicography of every modern language of the civilized peoples of Europe and America will be enriched, especially of English and the Romance tongues. As in history Rome stands midway between Antiquity and the Modern Age, between the Orient and the Occident, gathering up all that went before into a gigantic synthesis and than redistributing it along the pathway of all the western civilizations that radiate from her central position, so the Latin language, warder of the past and key to the future, is central, typical, fundamental, and *such*, I venture to claim, among the enterprises of classical scholarship is the place and the relative importance of the *Thesaurus*.

This enterprise is now unhappily in extreme difficulties. The staff was greatly reduced in consequence of the war, and the rate of progress was markedly slowed down, hardly more than a single fascicle a year appearing during that interval. Then came the military catastrophe, followed by economic disruption. Austria went almost bankrupt, and even Prussia, although it has more than tripled its original subvention, is at present actually contributing what amounts to little more than one-twentieth of what it used to give, when one bears in mind the increased cost of living, materials, and production and the portentous depreciation of the currency. Funds which prior to the war, with economy and self-sacrifice, were hardly adequate for maintenance, have since the peace become pathetically insufficient. The regular members of the staff, highly trained men who have been in the service of the *Thesaurus* from five to twenty years, several of them married, are trying somehow to live on salaries of from \$400 to \$900. All of them have used up whatever private means they possessed; many of them have not been able to take a vacation for years, but have done extra work during that period; some have been compelled to sell part of their libraries and even of their household furniture. The general staff, which at one time numbered sixteen to nineteen, has been reduced to five regular employes, three assistants, a director, a secretary and the holder of a fellowship from Switzerland. The rate of production has been so cut down that at the present output of about one fascicle a year it will be a full century before the remaining volumes are completed, and thus not only our generation, but two more beyond our time will be deprived of this inestimable aid to classical studies. More than once since the conclusion of the war the controlling commission has considered the necessity of closing down and of breaking up the organization; but fortunately the contribution of some small sums of money from friends of the Classics in Holland, Switzerland, Scandinavia, and the United States has hitherto prevented that catastrophe. With the mark at one-seventieth of its former value and the general cost of living fourteen hundred percent higher than it was in 1914, and with no increase in revenues but, instead, a positive

falling off, it would seem to be a sheer impossibility for the *Thesaurus* much longer to keep its head above water.

Here is a notable opportunity for a friend, or the friends, of classical scholarship in America to save and complete a great scientific enterprise, a distinguished work of peace, national indeed in its inception, but truly international in its ideals and service, to further the cause of learning and of culture, to deserve well of countless generations of scholars who will drink at this fountain, to achieve another act of disinterested benefaction which will merit and will certainly receive the plaudits of the whole world of humanistic scholarship. I appeal for help not in behalf of the little handful of men now working at the task; they may secure other employment. I appeal for help not in behalf of the classical scholars of Germany; they will suffer no more from the suspension of the *Thesaurus* and profit no more from its completion than will the scholars of every other nation. I appeal for help in behalf of the cause of the Classics in America and in all the world, now and for centuries to come. The *Thesaurus* Commission is willing to modify the present national control and accept an internationalization of the project, with supervision vested in a new Commission representing the classical scholarship of all lands from which assistance is forthcoming, if only the work can be supported and carried through to its conclusion. Two hundred thousand dollars, or perhaps even a somewhat smaller sum, would meet all the costs of the enterprise and insure the completion of the *Thesaurus* within the next decade. In the opinion of Dr. Dittmann \$2,500 a year would restore the rate of progress maintained during the first period and so perhaps finish the task within the next thirty years. Even a few hundred dollars at the prevailing rate of exchange, if contributed regularly per annum, would prevent suspension and the break up of the organization, and so tide over the enterprise to a period, one may hope not far distant, when the organized friendship among the new and the old nations of Europe will once more allow such works of peace and learning to flourish. Is it possible that America, wealthy, unselfish, beneficent America, should willingly allow the *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae* to perish?¹

¹ Since this appeal was prepared the situation has grown rapidly more desperate. Something must be done within the next few months or the *Thesaurus* is lost. [Sept. 13, 1922.]

HINTS FOR TEACHERS

By B. L. ULLMAN
University of Iowa

[The aim of this department is to furnish teachers of Latin with material which will be of direct and immediate help to them in the class-room. Teachers are requested to send questions about their teaching problems to B. L. Ullman, Iowa City, Iowa. Replies to such questions as appear to be of general interest will be answered in this department. Others will, as far as possible, be answered by mail. Teachers are also asked to send to the same address short paragraphs dealing with teaching devices, methods, and materials which they have found helpful. These will be published with due credit if they seem useful to others.]

Latin for English

An inquiry has come in from a college professor for a book on Latin etymology, similar to Hoffman's *Everyday Greek* (University of Chicago Press). The letter states: "It will mean quite a bit of strength to our Latin department if we can have such a course followed later by the Greek course." As far as I know, there is no such book available. The nearest to it, Judson's *The Latin in English*, has long been out of print. I have for years been giving a course called "The Latin Element in English" without using a textbook. Reference may, however, be made to the list of books given in the "Hints" for last April (page 407). To this list should be added a book to be published soon, *Language and Philology*, by R. G. Kent, in the series "Our Debt to Greece and Rome," published by the Marshall Jones Company, Boston. It must not be forgotten that recent beginning Latin books have included much of this sort of material and that still more may be expected in forthcoming books.

Parallels

Attention has previously been called in the "Hints" to the importance of drawing parallels between ancient and modern life in order to lend interest to the Latin teaching, to give life to the remote ancients, and to impress on the pupils the high degree of civilization to which the ancients attained. Particularly in these post-war days,

when we seem to be shutting ourselves off from the rest of the world, it is necessary to learn what our neighbors and predecessors have been doing. The history of Main Street in our town is not the history of the world. Those who think it is are too often intolerant, self-centered, and self-satisfied. Education must take the conceit and intolerance out of us, must teach us that there were brave men before 1914, to paraphrase the ancient proverb. And so we shall continue to cite parallels in these "Hints" in the hope that the teachers will use them, will look for others, and will teach the pupils to search after more.

An associated Press report last June stated that during the illness of Premier Lenin of Russia a triumvirate is ruling the country. The dispatch continues:

The similarity of the reported triumvirate to the old Roman triumvirate and the French directorate during the revolution is noted, and German commentators already are pointing to the historic parallels and arguing that such transitions invariably lead to the weakening of the republics and pave the way to transformations on a large scale.

Sometimes we have not a parallel but an instructive superiority on the part of the ancients. Some of us have long been telling our students how much more civilized the Romans were in one respect at least, that of bathing. Not to mention accommodations for thousands of people in Rome, it is a surprising fact which Pliny tells us, that a certain little village near his villa had three public baths. It is a pleasure then to read this statement by Dr. Evans in the *Chicago Tribune*.

At the height of Roman civilization the baths represented the last word in civilization. The Roman baths are not equaled by those of today. Then came the barbarian and a thousand years without a bath!

Dr. Evans states that the first bathtub in America was built only eighty years ago, that in Boston bathing was illegal except on a physician's prescription, and that in some cities a double rate was charged for water used in bathing!

We are still joking about the Saturday night bath, whereas the cultured Roman probably felt more incensed if he had to go without his daily bath than if his meals were denied him.

Making Caesar Interesting

This perennial question was suggested by one teacher as her "most puzzling problem" at the Classical Conference held at the University of Chicago last spring. Here are a few suggestions put very briefly:

1. Caesar will be more interesting if the pupils are better prepared for it: This means prolongation of the elementary work, additional simple reading, and the postponement of Caesar to the fourth semester.

2. More attention should be paid to the story of the *Gallic War*. Too much attention to syntax is apt to obscure the story.

3. Instead of reading the first four books straight through, selections of the most interesting portions of the seven books should be read.

4. Comparisons should be drawn between the Gallic War and the World War in respect to the location of the battles (read especially the second book of Caesar), the methods and implements of warfare, the issues at stake. For this purpose useful material will be found in the files of the *Classical Journal*, the *Classical Weekly*, other periodicals, and some of the recent editions of Caesar.

5. General parallels with modern life.

6. To the boys who are interested in such things it may be suggested that they make models of spears, shields, catapults, Caesar's bridge, etc. The files of the *Classical Journal* contain many references to such things. Perhaps the girls would undertake to dress dolls (if the right kind can be found) in Roman military uniforms.

These few suggestions are intended merely to start the discussion. Who will contribute others?

Reading in the Latin Order

Through his teaching and through his pamphlet, *The Art of Reading Latin* (published by Atkinson and Mentzer), Professor Hale has had a wide influence in getting pupils to read (not translate) Latin in the natural order, taking the words as they come. There can hardly be any question now as to the desirability of this method as one first works out the thought of a Latin sentence, before translating it, if it is to be translated at all.

Professor George Currie, of Birmingham-Southern College, suggests an excellent way of testing one's pupils in the use of the method. (Typographical exigencies led to the substitutions of right-pointing

and left-pointing arrows for rising and falling arrows, suggested by Professor Currie.)

Right-pointing arrows indicate a point of suspense due to sentence structure and left-pointing arrows the points at which such suspense is relieved. By "suspense" is meant that a decision as to construction must be deferred.

1→ 2→ 3→ 3→ 4→
 Nam nisi multorum praeceptis multisque litteris mihi ab adulescentia
 ←2, 3, 4 5→ 6→ ←5, 6
 suasissem nihil esse in vita magno opere expetendum nisi laudem atque
 7→ 8→ 9→ ←7, 8 9→
 honestatem, in ea autem persequenda omnes cruciatus corporis, omnia
 9→ 10→ ←9, 10 1→ 11→
 pericula mortis atque exilii parvi esse ducenda, numquam me pro salute
 12→ ←12 13→ 14→ 15→
 vestra in tot ac tantas dimicationes atque in hos profligatorum hominum
 ←13, 14, 15 ←1, 11
 cotidianos impetus obiecissem (*Pro Archia* vi. 14).

Nam indicates that an assertion is to be made but the next word does not give the assertion (you will see two words at once if you have the page before you). Mark over *nam* a right-pointing arrow numbered 1. This anticipated assertion comes as the last word in the sentence at which the left-pointing arrow numbered 1 is used. *Nisi* forestalls a finite verb or possibly a noun; mark it with a right-pointing arrow numbered 2. *Multorum* anticipates another genitive or is used substantively. *Praeceptis* standing next, together with the context makes a tentative conclusion possible about *multorum* which need not be changed unless another word forces a correction of such a view. *Praeceptis* with *multis* following is in doubt as to case. Use a right-pointing arrow numbered 3. *Que* anticipates a noun which will be in the same case as *praeceptis* and be modified by *multis*. There is no suspense on *multis*, but repeat the right-pointing arrow over *litteris*, numbered 3 to show that the same suspense as on the case of *praeceptis* continues. *Mihi* could not be a parallel case use and so will have a right-pointing arrow numbered 4. *Ab* followed by *adulescentia* is just like English, hence it causes no suspense. The phrase just before the verb it modifies causes no suspense, for *suasissem* explains everything from the introduction of *nisi*. It will be marked with a left-pointing arrow marked 2, 3, and 4. Further explanation is unnecessary when it is understood that the right-pointing arrow means that one must wait for the answer to the question as to the use of the word over which it stands, while the left-pointing arrow indicates the word with which the answer to such a question is revealed.

What are the advantages of the system of arrows? First, it is an outward expression of the process of thought and tests that thought just as laboratory work furnishes a means of emphasizing and testing theoretical knowledge in the natural sciences.

Second, it furnishes the teacher a tangible means by which the mental state of the student may be seen at a glance. It takes the place of written or oral explanation. By dictating to the student and asking that each word be marked

with an arrow as it is heard, the teacher may see to what extent Latin is understood as Latin. A sentence a day marked and handed in takes little of the teacher's time and guarantees that the student will practice trying to think Latin. To avoid an apparent use of the method by the student while in fact he practices translating and then marking, an occasional incomplete sentence should be given with the problem of completing it so as to make sense.

The third value of the system is that it assures the student that he is expected to learn to read Latin, and he will not go away after five or six years of the study and imagine that everybody has to translate to get the thought.

Fourth, even if the arrows are placed by the wrong method they furnish a far better means of showing construction than diagramming with the usual branching-line method. But this is beside the point of their use. The arrows might differ in position according to two or more possible interpretations. It is not to be expected that the beginner will always place them correctly.

In conclusion, the best test of whether a student can think in Latin would be to have the arrows placed on an incomplete sentence in class with some time to think.

Latin Hymns

In answering the question in one of the "Hints" last year about collections of Latin hymns reference should have been made to *Latin Hymns*, by W. A. Merrill, published by Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., Boston, 1904. This collection, containing over 80 hymns, gives brief notes and a bibliography, and indicates the hymn books in which translations of the various hymns may be found. This book was not mentioned through some inexplicable oversight. Another collection, unknown to me until recently, is *Latin Hymns*, by Matthew Germing, S. J., published by the Loyola University Press, Chicago, 1920 (20 cts). This contains over 30 hymns, a bibliography, and notes. Very often part or all of the hymn is given in English translation.

Quips

In additions to the types of puzzling jests given in previous "Hints" there is the type which is puzzling because the Latin words involved have two or more meanings. Again I am indebted to Professor Hodgman for most of these.

1. *Mea mater sus est mala.* (Go [*meo, meare*], mother, the pig is eating the apples.)

2. *Frater mea in silvam pater suem tuum est.* (Brother, go into the woods, father is eating your pig.)

3. *Equus in stabulo est sed non est.* (The horse is in the stable but does not eat.)

4. *Ne mater suam.* (Spin [*neo, nere*], mother, I will sew).

5. *Filia sub tilia nebat subtilia fila.* (The daughter was spinning fine threads under the linden tree.)

6. *Cane decane, canis; sed ne cane, cane decane, De cane; de canis, cane decane, cane.* (Gray-haired dean, you are singing; but do not sing, gray-haired dean, about a dog; sing about the gray-haired, gray-haired dean.)

This is an elegiac couplet; the first line is a dactylic hexameter, the second a so-called pentameter, with the second half of the third and sixth feet clipped off. The quantity of the *a* is the puzzling factor throughout.

Questions and Answers

There is a very well known Easter Hymn, "Christ our Lord is risen today. Alleluia," that is described in the hymn books in such a way as to suggest that it was originally a Latin hymn. Is this so, and can the words be found?

This is a confusion of two hymns, "Christ the Lord is risen today," and "Jesus Christ is risen to-day. . . Alleluia." They are Nos. 111 and 112 in the Episcopal Hymnal. The latter is described as from a Latin hymn written in the fourteenth century by an unknown writer. It is in fact a free translation of the hymn given by Merrill, *Latin Hymns*, p. 78.

Will you please suggest a "Problem-Project" for a Latin class in some year of the high school? Do you consider the method valuable?

In the *Classical Journal*, Vol. 16, pp. 388 ff., there is an article by W. J. Grinstead on the project method in beginning Latin which may be of some interest to you. If not carried to excess I believe that there are valuable suggestions in this method for teaching Latin. Among the various devices which may be listed as problem projects I should include the following: 1. Translating and giving in Latin or English a simple Latin play. Pupils would work out for themselves the matter of scenery, costumes, properties, etc. 2. Tableaux or dramatizations of portions of the text read in class. 3. The writing and production of a play by the whole class in Latin or in English. 4. The writing of a novel on a Roman theme by the whole class in Latin or in English. This is being done in one of the Los Angeles

schools. 5. A class scrapbook of clippings from newspapers and magazines of material having to do with classical antiquity or the study of Latin. 6. The publication of a newspaper in Latin or English or both. This may be printed or mimeographed. 7. The production of a class book with contributions by all members of the class. The material may be in English or Latin and should deal with the ancient civilization in some form or other. 8. The building of a model of Caesar's bridge by the Caesar class.

Where can I find Latin New Testaments?

These, as well as complete Latin Bibles, may be obtained through any large dealer, such as A. C. McClurg and Co., Chicago, or G. E. Stechert and Co., 151 West 25th St., New York.

Who publishes the Latin edition of Robinson Crusoe?

The Latin edition, by Goffeaux and Barnett, is published by Longmans, Green and Co.

BOOK REVIEW

The Origin of Tyranny. By P. N. URE. Cambridge: University Press, 1922.

The thesis which Professor Ure sustains in this scholarly book is that the tyrants who appeared in the Greek cities in the seventh and sixth centuries B.C. obtained their power for the most part by means of their wealth, and not by virtue of success in military enterprises or leadership of a popular movement against aristocracies. Their wealth was acquired in some cases by controlling a supply of precious metals which enabled them to create a monopoly of coinage, in others, by successful manufacturing or commercial ventures. This wealth, however acquired, enabled the would-be tyrants to give employment to large numbers of free persons of the lower classes by whose aid they seized the government in their cities. It also enabled them to hire the mercenaries needed to maintain their authority. While their wealth lasted, they retained the support of the classes dependent upon them for their livelihood, but the loss or exhaustion of their wealth brought about their fall. Plato and Aristotle, it is true, regard the demagogue, particularly the demagogue general, as the tyrant in embryo. However, the author holds that these political philosophers generalized from contemporary political conditions and were unduly influenced by the career of Dionysius I. of Syracuse, who became for them and for subsequent writers the *typical* tyrant. The word "tyrant" is held to have been borrowed by the Greeks to designate commercial despots of this sort, and the odium attached to it is believed to reflect the animosity of the Greek aristocracies towards the despotisms of wealth. A modern historical parallel is sought in the political influence of moneyed interests, particularly in the United States.

These general conclusions are based upon a careful examination of the traditions respecting the origin and character of the early tyrannies in the various cities of Greece, and the contemporary governments in countries in touch with the Greek world, interpreted in the light of recent archaeological discoveries and modern views upon

the social and economic conditions of that epoch. The author's arguments may be summed up under three heads. (1) The general economic conditions of the age favored such political developments. The seventh and sixth centuries were characterized by a great growth of commerce and industry which, as new sources of wealth, attracted the interest of able and ambitious men. This was also the time of the appearance of coinage, which made the accumulation of great fortunes more easy, and at the same time facilitated their employment in more varied ways. And, in contrast to the following centuries, this was a period when free and not slave labor dominated the industrial situation. Consequently, a large employer of labor had a powerful political clientele at his disposal. (2) In other countries, which at this time were in close contact with the Greeks, wealth was the basis of political power. In Egypt, Psamtek I., founder of the Saite dynasty, seems to have gained his throne thanks to his wealth acquired in foreign trade, which enabled him to build up an army of Greek mercenaries. In Lydia, the dynasty of Gyges was closely identified with commerce, and Croesus in particular owed his throne to money. The introduction of coinage is credited to this dynasty, and the myth of Gyges' ring may reflect an actual monopoly of coined metal. As the word "tyranny" first appears in Greek literature with reference to Gyges, it is possibly a word of Lydian origin adopted by the Greeks to designate monarchies of a new type, i.e., won by wealth. Likewise, Roman tradition ascribes the rule of the first Tarquin to the fortune made by his father in trade. (3) The literary evidence respecting the individual Greek tyrants. Pheidon, king of Argos, was the first European Greek to be called tyrant. He figures as the author of the Aeginetan system of weights and measures and of the first coinage in the Peloponnesus. His career belongs to the early seventh century, and he was probably responsible for the establishment of Argive influence in Aegina, the overthrow of the early Athenian naval power, and the placing of an embargo on the importation of Athenian pottery into his dominions. His obvious commercial interests and his coinage may have won for him the name of tyrant. The rise of Peisistratus in Athens was due to his control of silver mines in Thrace and in the Laurium district of Attica. The "hill country" of Attica is not the region of Mt. Parnes, but the south-east of the peninsula. Thus the "hill men" who formed the party of Peisistratus will be the miners in his employ, and it is sug-

gested that the basis of the Phye story is his striking of coins with an Athena head. A study of the tyrannies in Samos, Megara, Sicyon, Corinth, and other cities shows that their founders had a remarkably close connection with commercial activities. Even in the fourth century a tyranny of wealth is found in Assos and Atarneus.

While admitting the weak or irrelevant character of much of his evidence, Professor Ure feels that its cumulative effect is to justify his contention. There is no question but that he has advanced a very plausible theory which must be given serious consideration in all future study of this period. His arrangement of his material is good, his discussion keen, and with scholarly instinct he avoids the error of elevating his theory into a dogma with which the evidence must be made to harmonize. The general make-up of the book, the paper, illustrations, and type reflect great credit on the publishers, and there is a very complete index.

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